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From “closed worlds” to “open doors”: (now) accessing Deobandi Darul Uloom in Britain

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ABSTRACT

In 2005, I documented my unsuccessful attempts to conduct qualitative research in a particular group of British Islamic seminaries responsible for training future imams and scholars (*‘ulama*). These seminaries or “*darul uloom*” (in Arabic, “house of knowledge”, often abbreviated “DU”) reflect the “Deobandi” tradition due to their origins in the town of Deoband, India, in the nineteenth century. My article, published in the journal *Fieldwork in Religion*, considered the circumstantial, contextual, and historical factors that might explain why access was apparently impossible for social science researchers, at the time. In this article, twelve years on, I explore why research access is now more possible in at least some Deobandi institutions. These include developmental changes within and outside these seminaries, and aspects of personal and professional biography. My article considers the processual nature of research access, and the need for a felicitous convergence of circumstantial and biographical conditions.

Keywords: access; *darul uloom*; research; methodology; Muslims; Britain; seminary; re-exivity.

* This article has benefited from feedback from a number of critical friends, and I am grateful for their considered reflections and comments. Errors of fact or interpretation remain mine alone.

“Closed Worlds”

Researchers rarely write about projects or studies that didn't happen, at all. The unsuccessful grant application, difficulties of gaining ethical approval, or the complete lack of access to a fieldwork site are not often subjects for scholarly writing and reflection (Schwartzman 1993). However, my article in 2005, “Closed Worlds”, was precisely concerned with lack of any meaningful access to Deobandi *darul uloom*, and in particular for a male, Muslim graduate researcher who would have conducted the fieldwork as part of my project. I felt that our difficulties were revealing of important data about the situation of these institutions in Britain at the time, and that there was something to be learnt through the various ways in which our endeavours were thwarted. I explored the factors that might explain our frustrated efforts, which focused upon four main considerations. While being individually significant, they probably converged in an untimely and problematic way in relation to the situation of British Muslim communities, at the time. I summarize these factors below, briefly.

Firstly, the origin of these religious institutions in nineteenth-century colonial India and their resistance to “the British” meant that their orientation has generally been characterized as oppositional and resistant to external interference (Geaves 2015; Lewis 2002; Metcalf 1982). This stance was transferred into the British context with the migration of South Asian Muslims to the UK in the decades after the Second World War, and there was little attempt to engage with wider civil society, not least because of the assumption that settlement in Britain was only going to be temporary (Anwar 1979). There was neither the tradition, the expertise, the resources, nor the perceived need to engage (Joly 1988). The second consideration involves the nature, history, and purpose of these institutions within the Islamic tradition. Their primary objective has been the cultivation of pious and religiously-knowledgeable individuals who embody and preserve religious texts and dispositions (Lindholm 2002; Robinson 1982). The preservation of knowledge and its successful transmission from one generation to another produces an orientation that focuses upon internal teacher-student relationships, rather than more outward-facing engagement. The third factor that probably influenced our lack of access revolved around the socio-political climate at the time of the intended research. It was just a few years after 9/11, and there was new and growing suspicion in relation to the potential for terror attacks in the UK. Islamic institutions were under scrutiny in an entirely new way, and subject to increasingly intrusive investigation by the media, counter-terrorism officials, and government inspectors (Versi 2003). The last thing that *staj* in the *darul uloom* wanted was further “research”. The lack of access was perhaps related to a fourth consideration, namely, the anathema of social scientific enquiry within

1 these institutions (Hornsby-Smith 1993). While valuing knowledge, it seemed that
2 this did not extend to appreciation of social scientific knowledge, certainly in
3 comparison to the mastery of divinely-revealed religious texts and classical com-
4 mentaries. "What any group counts as 'knowledge' is ... a social product" (Spick-
5 ard 2002: 247), and my work clearly "didn't count".

6 My article in 2005 documented the lack of access, and the often unspoken
7 ways in which we were rebuffed. We encountered the position, "it's not up to me",
8 which pushed the refusal onto nameless others, and the "delayed gratification"
9 strategy which suggested that "it's not the right time ... come back another time"
10 (Izraeli and Jick 1986: 178). We met with silence, or invitations to submit research
11 questions in writing (only). One way or another, the answer to our request for
12 access was an unspoken but clearly indicative "no", despite the considerable per-
13 suasive efforts of myself and people who could act as gatekeepers over a period of
14 many months. My article considered the strategies used by individuals and insti-
15 tutions to thwart these efforts, and I reflected upon what could be understood
16 about *darul uloom* as a consequence of their refusal to enable our work.

17 In my efforts to achieve research access I regarded myself as being "in the
18 field" to some extent, even if not where I had hoped to be. As Shawn Landres
19 suggests: "the ethnographer is 'the field' ... ethnographers do not just represent
20 and define 'the field'; they become it" (Landres 2002: 105; original emphasis). Fur-
21 thermore, an uncritical assumption that my position was one of "outsider" would
22 have been a tacit acceptance of "the nationalist and anthropological premise of
23 bounded, distinctive, naturally localized cultures" (Handler 1993: 72). On the basis
24 of many years of fieldwork and relationship-building (and friendships) in many
25 British Muslim communities, I could not regard myself as being "an outsider" on
26 either personal or intellectual grounds.

27 My article was published as the lead piece in the first volume of a new spe-
28 cialist academic journal for which I had a clear audience in mind as I was writ-
29 ing. I was therefore surprised and unprepared for the degree to which it began
30 to circulate in Deobandi circles, and became the subject of negative reactions (so
31 I was told). I had paid insufficient attention to the politics of audience reception
32 (Brettell 1993a). The ease with which PDF documents can be appended to emails,
33 or uploaded to discussion forums, means that writing intended primarily for an
34 academic audience can be distributed well beyond typical journal-reading cir-
35 cles. Not surprisingly, the article acquired some notoriety (and me with it). The
36 article had been written and situated in relation to an existing body of academic
37 knowledge and writing about qualitative methods and theory, and in this way,
38 the intellectual grounding of the article will have been familiar to the audience I
39 was primarily addressing (Brettell 1993b: 102). But few readers in the *darul uloom*
40

1 world will have been acquainted with this corpus of literature, and herein, some
2 of the misunderstanding and negativity perhaps arose.

3 While conducting fieldwork for a different and subsequent research project, I
4 was frustrated to hear that critical responses were not necessarily informed by
5 those who had actually read the article. This mirrors the experience of Dona Davis
6 following her anthropological research in Newfoundland (Davis 1983). Many of
7 the women involved in her study voiced disapproval of her interpretations and
8 felt betrayed by her published monograph. Davis was able to accept valid criti-
9 cisms of her work, but “what was harder to cope with were the mistaken rumours
10 about her book that circulated throughout the community to the point where
11 people who had not even read the book were voicing opinions about it” (Brettell
12 1993a: 4, citing Davis 1983). A similar point is echoed by Sheehan: “the mythic ele-
13 ment of stories about exploitative outsiders can easily overtake the reality of the
14 actual research as well as informed analyses of it. It certainly discourages open-
15 minded interest in reading the actual text” (Sheehan 1993: 78).

16 More positively, a small number of graduates from Deobandi darul uloom
17 who had read my article made contact, and considered my reflections on lack of
18 access as accurate evaluations. They supplemented my explanations with ideas of
19 their own that were far more mundane compared to my speculative rationaliza-
20 tions about the relative value of different kinds of knowledge. For example, I was
21 informed that these institutions had historically not always been able to main-
22 tain generally accepted standards of hygiene and cleanliness, and that there may
23 have been a sense of shame at allowing strangers to view premises that were not
24 well-maintained.¹

25 What was instructive for me to reflect upon was the fact that as a consequence
26 of the rumours and gossip about my article, I was being subjected to a form of
27 “talk”, designed to exert social control (especially in relation to women) that
28 characterizes some South Asian communities (Shaw 2000: 172). Claire Alexander
29 noted the ubiquitous nature of “gossip” in her work with British Bangladeshis
30 (Alexander 2000), while Bolognani makes a similar observation in relation to Pak-
31 istanis in Bradford (Bolognani 2009). She reflects that there “is a tradition still
32 very much alive of passing knowledge on in an informal way through gossip and
33 narration of events that have been heard [at] three, four or five removes” (Bolog-
34 nani 2009: 2). Some of the negative gossip about my article will have confirmed a
35 sense of “moral panic” about the inevitable threat of Western institutions, in this
36 case academia.

37
38
39 1. Notes from personal telephone conversation, 6 June 2009.
40

1 Disapproving speculation about the article was also a reflection of the rela-
2 tively limited ways in which resistance to my work could be articulated (Jale
3 1993: 64). In this way, I began to understand that “the reactions of the people
4 studied to the ethnographer’s description and interpretation ... are an important
5 source of ethnographic data” (Brettell 1993b: 99). The intensity of disapproval for
6 my article seemed to be indicative of an enduring feeling of insecurity and sus-
7 picion of “outsiders” within a tight-knit socio-religious community that, at the
8 time, was struggling to establish and articulate a more self-confident place in
9 British society. “There is a powerful relationship between self-esteem and a ten-
10 dency to defend oneself and protest against criticism” (Greenburg 1993: 114).

11 Although my intention in writing the “Closed Worlds” article was to document
12 simply what transpired (as I was obliged to do, as a professional obligation to the
13 research funder) and to signal to other researchers some of the difficulties that
14 might attend research in Deobandi institutions in the mid-2000s, the fact that I
15 had written about lack of access was predominantly interpreted within Deobandi
16 circles in a way that assumed negative intent on my part. This was a disconcerting
17 reaction given the degree to which I actually had a sympathetic view of the insti-
18 tutions and individuals with whom I was trying to forge relationships, despite
19 the frustrations associated with non-access. My sympathies rested upon recogni-
20 tion of successful institution-building in a new context (with the challenges that
21 this entails), and the prominence of some high-profile Deobandi graduates who
22 have contributed in positive ways to public understanding of Islam and Muslims
23 in Britain (Birt and Lewis 2011; Gilliat-Ray et al. 2013). Taking this position did
24 not mean “abandoning all efforts at analytical neutrality” (Jale 1993: 56). But it
25 did imply that my professional work was (and remains) orientated toward sup-
26 port for Muslim communities in Britain, commitment to a worldview concerned
27 with human flourishing, and resistance to dominant cultural narratives that often
28 frame British Muslims in negative terms. In this way, I really didn’t want the insti-
29 tutions I was trying to access to confirm the negative “isolationist” stance attrib-
30 uted to them in so many academic, media and think-tank accounts (Bowen 2014).²
31 Furthermore, my academic training and personal experiences over many decades
32 had instilled a recognition that the kind of ethnographic research I wanted to
33 carry out is

34 a profoundly ethical form of enterprise, based as it is on a commitment to other
35 people’s everyday lives ... It is a deeply humane undertaking, precisely because
36 it is predicated on the ethnographer’s personal commitment, and on the com-
37 mon humanity shared by the researcher and the researched (Atkinson 2015: 5).

38
39 2. For a recent example, see Owen Bennett Jones on Radio 4, 12 April 2016: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b07766zw> (accessed 17 October 2017).
40

1 Fast forward to 2017, and the situation is rather different. As part of a research
2 council grant application, a formal "Memorandum of Understanding" (MOU) has
3 been signed between my university in Cardiff, Wales, and a Deobandi darul uloom
4 in southern England. If the funding bid is successful, a small research team will be
5 able to carry out participant observation within the institution at periodic inter-
6 vals during the project. We will have scope to interview key teachers, permission
7 to view anonymized documentary records, and we will have access to students
8 in order to carry out focus group discussions. I say "we", but should clarify that
9 this access is only partial in relation to myself, as a woman, despite the fact I am
10 the principal investigator. There are some institutional activities that will only
11 be accessible to my male co-investigators and researchers. Despite this (and even
12 if the funding application is unsuccessful) the MOU is for me much more than a
13 mutual statement of intent to collaborate in a research partnership. It is a per-
14 sonal treasure that means as much to me as some of my most significant academic
15 achievements. It is a professional "breakthrough", but also an affirming recogni-
16 tion of my original, positive intent, which is concerned with being "faithful to the
17 social world under investigation and the people who make it ... and the essential
18 complexity of those lives" (Atkinson 2015: 5).

19 In the remainder of this article, I reflect upon the trajectory of events since
20 2005 and the contextual, political and circumstantial factors that have enabled
21 access to a dimension of British Muslim educational life that is a "closed book"
22 to most people, including significant numbers of British Muslims themselves. I
23 also consider the way that these factors intersect with aspects of my own biogra-
24 phy and career development over the last decade. Many social scientific projects
25 reflect opportunist possibilities arising from the confluence of personal and pro-
26 fessional conditions (Lojand and Lojand 1995). Just as my lack of access twelve
27 years ago probably reflected an inauspicious merging of circumstances, the flip
28 side also appears to be the case, demonstrating the sometimes idiosyncratic
29 nature of ethnography. "What results from any particular ethnographic inquiry
30 represents a coming together of a personality and personal biography in the
31 persona of the ethnographer, interacting in a particular place in a unique way"
32 (Wolcott 1999: 89) (and we might add, at a particular time). Just as there is a recog-
33 nition that our multiple positionalities within a research field relative to those we
34 are engaged with may make us "insiders" and "outsiders" simultaneously (Abbas
35 2010), so too research "access" is equally a fluid, negotiated, contextually-depen-
36 dent, and provisional state of affairs that reflects biography, circumstances, and
37 often a degree of serendipity.

The Emergence of a New Generation of British-born Deobandi Scholars

The individuals who pioneered the establishment of Deobandi darul uloom in Britain in the post-Second World War years—especially from the 1980s onwards—were inheritors of a religious worldview that was to some extent oppositional to and suspicious of “the British”. Their religious training in the Indian sub-continent meant that the priority was replication of the kind of institutions they were familiar with “back home”, and the preservation and protection of Islam in a society that was regarded as morally inferior and often hostile. However, these institutions have now produced a generation of British-born Islamic scholars and imams. For most of them, English is one of their mother-tongues, and they have inevitably been influenced and socialized by the cultural mores of wider society, to some degree. Recent quantitative research with Muslim adolescent boys across the UK found that for 64 per cent of them, English was the main language spoken at home (Francis and McKenna 2017). Even if their identity as “British” is confined only to the holding of a UK passport, research evidence indicates that the vast majority of Muslims in Britain now tend to identify predominantly with their communities in this country, not the places “back home” from which their parents and grandparents migrated (Karlsen and Nazroo 2015). This in itself signals a different stance in relation to British society, compared to the immediate post-Second World War generations who perpetuated the “myth of return” (Anwar 1979).

The most entrepreneurial, talented, and increasingly influential among this emergent generation of British-born scholars have often developed themselves in varied and important ways after they have left their seminaries. While usually remaining in close touch with the institutions and their peers, they have gone on to higher education, acquired professional qualifications, or secured positions in publicly-funded chaplaincy (Gilliat-Ray et al. 2013). These experiences have shaped their worldviews and attitudes in ways that have been personally transformative, as well as influential in relation to their alma mater. For example, Muslim chaplains—many of whom are British-born Deobandi graduates—have had to learn how to work in multi-faith “teams” in public institutions where ideas about equality and diversity are deeply embedded (and since the Equality Act 2010, carry legal requirements). They have had to think contextually about how the Islamic tradition and the requirements of the shari’ah can be accommodated in settings that have other priorities, such as security, health or military efficiency (Haîz 2015). The skills and relationships they have developed have equipped them to reflect upon the broader accommodation of Islam in public life, and the role that Islamic educational institutions might have in training the imams of the future.

1 As the British-born generation of Deobandi graduates gain professional exper-
2 tise and continue to engage with different parts of British society, they have
3 acquired an understanding that even if they continue to hold conservative views
4 in private, it is as well not to broadcast them in public. James Fergusson's recent
5 odyssey around "Muslim Britain" (Fergusson 2017) brought him into dialogue
6 with Sheikh Riyadh ul-Haq, one of the most influential Deobandi scholars in Brit-
7 ain who acquired a reputation for his conservative views. Based on a talk that
8 Riyadh gave at a youth conference in 2002, Birt and Lewis described his "essen-
9 tialist vision ... [providing] little room for Muslims to engage openly with wider
10 society" (Birt and Lewis 2011: 109). Some fifteen years on, Riyadh told Fergusson:
11 "I've given thousands of hours of lectures in my time, so of course there are some
12 things I regret saying ... But is it fair to judge a man by words spoken years ago,
13 in a different political climate, a different time?" (Fergusson 2017: 145). In other
14 words, he acknowledged that his opinions had changed as a consequence of expe-
15 rience. The reverse of this situation also pertains. During the Muslim chaplaincy
16 project conducted at Cardiff University between 2008 and 2011, pastoral accounts
17 were sometimes conveyed to us with the caveat, "please don't tell anyone".³ Some
18 chaplains who had trained in Deobandi seminaries in Britain had performed
19 duties that they regarded as absolutely acceptable from an Islamic perspective—
20 such as facilitating religious worship for members of other faiths—but which
21 their more conservative community members may regard as somehow beyond
22 the pale. They recognized that in some instances, "the community is not ready to
23 hear this just yet". The point to make is that many British-born Deobandi scholars
24 are becoming more contextually-aware and more adept at managing both inter-
25 nal and external public relations, and navigating the difficult tension between
26 "tradition" and the impetus for change.

27 The brotherly bonds of trust that are typical between teachers and students
28 in the (male) darul uloom sector are such that the "founding generation" of elders
29 are increasingly reliant upon British-born graduates in shaping the future direc-
30 tion of these institutions. While relationships between "elders" and their protégé
31 still retain their characteristic hallmarks of South Asian deference and respect,
32 there is nonetheless an awareness of the need to support the younger genera-
33 tion of British-born scholars when it comes to management of external relations,
34 especially in a social media saturated society that younger people usually nav-
35 igate with confident proficiency. This delegation to a new generation has been
36

37
38 3. "Leadership and Capacity-building in the British Muslim Community: The Case of
39 Muslim Chaplains", funded via the AHRC/ESRC "Religion and Society" Programme. Project
40 code: AH/F008937/1.

1 particularly apparent in relation to the pressures and opportunities arising from
2 the educational sphere.

3 4 Educational Influences

5 Many British-born Deobandi scholars have been exposed to the national curricu-
6 lum and to mainstream education at some time in their lives, as well as complet-
7 ing their “traditional” Islamic studies. They are able to appreciate simultaneously
8 the merit of time-honoured methods of teaching and learning—often centred
9 upon the practice of memorization and embodiment of religious texts (Boyle 2004;
10 Gent 2006, 2011a, 2011b, 2016)—alongside an appreciation of the career opportu-
11 nities that derive from successfully gaining recognized academic and professional
12 qualifications (Geaves 2008; 2015). This recognition has been encouraged within
13 the darul uloom themselves, and there is now active support for those aspiring to
14 undertake study in the further education or higher education sectors (Birt and
15 Lewis 2011). Given the lack of job opportunities for imams or mosque teachers
16 (or indeed other kinds of professional/salaried religious work) many darul uloom
17 graduates need to find other kinds of employment, or progress towards higher
18 education when they leave (Birt and Lewis 2011). This has pushed the darul uloom
19 sector towards more outward-facing engagement, attention to issues of gradu-
20 ate employability, and aspirations for academic excellence among their students.

21 Their moves in this direction are increasingly supported by Muslim parents in
22 Britain who are concerned that their young people should succeed and flourish
23 (Birt 2005). During a study of religious nurture of Muslim young people in Cardiff,
24 we found that ideas about teaching and learning that parents had absorbed from
25 their contact with mainstream community schools were influencing their atti-
26 tudes towards the religious education of their children in mosques and Islamic
27 centres (Scourfield et al. 2013). There was evidence of a shift from what Castells
28 would term “resistance identity”—shaped by perceptions of external hostil-
29 ity and rejection of dominant secular-liberal values—to “project identity” that
30 seeks to redefine the social position of Muslims, not through withdrawal to the
31 “trenches”, but through proactive engagement with civil society (Castells 1997).
32 Parents wanted their children to learn how to read the Qur’an, but to understand
33 also its meanings and implications for living as “good Muslims” in a twenty-first-
34 century British context (Scourfield et al. 2013). This mind-set is likely to be repli-
35 cated more widely among the parents of those engaged in advanced darul uloom
36 Islamic Studies; they want their young people to be successful and employable.
37 Seen in this light, the moves that the sector has made towards greater engage-
38 ment with the educational sphere are likely to be welcomed by parents and the
39
40

1 wider stakeholder community who can, by virtue of their funding, patronage and
2 social networks, exert considerable influence on the speed and direction of insti-
3 tutional change.

4 There are other drivers of transformation stemming from the educational
5 sphere that will have impacted upon the new generation of British-born Deo-
6 bandi scholars to some degree. Those students who have been exposed to the
7 national curriculum within a darul uloom setting, as well as those following more
8 advanced Islamic Studies, will have been given both compulsory and non-compul-
9 sory opportunities to engage with, for example, children from other local schools
10 as part of exchange programmes, visits to charities, museums, inter-faith initia-
11 tives, community projects, other places of worship, and so on, often as part of the
12 PSHCE curriculum.⁴ A “Charity Fun Day” held at Darul Uloom Leicester reported
13 on successful fundraising for two national charities, namely “Age UK” and the
14 “British Heart Foundation”, as well as a local children’s hospice⁵ while students
15 of Darul Uloom Blackburn have worked for many years with the Salvation Army
16 by preparing and ojeriing food to homeless people.⁶ School inspections by the
17 government inspection body OFSTED⁷ now include an evaluation of institutional
18 performance in relation to “community cohesion”. Irrespective of whether the
19 impetus towards a more outward facing stance is regarded by darul uloom staḳ as a
20 burden that distracts from their primary *raison d’être* of cultivating Islamic knowl-
21 edge and piety, or a welcome opportunity to cultivate “citizenship” in their stu-
22 dents, initiatives that bridge the gap between darul uloom and wider society will
23 shape the worldviews of those students who have been exposed to influences that
24 broaden their perspectives and experiences.

25 Another stimulus for engagement with academia is the eḳort that has been
26 underway to secure academic recognition for the classical Islamic curriculum
27 taught in the Islamic seminary sector, known as the dars-e-nizami (Scott-Bau-
28 mann and Cheruvallil-Contractor 2015).⁸ Students who complete an advanced
29

30 4. PSHCE is acronym for: Personal, Social, Health and Citizenship Education.

31 5. See <http://www.darululoomleicester.org/2017/09/16/charity-fun-day-2017/> (ac-
32 cessed 6 October 2017).

33 6. See <http://www.jamiah.co.uk/achievements/community-cohesion/> (accessed 6
34 October 2017).

35 7. OFSTED is the Ofḳce for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills, a
36 government institution that “inspects and regulates services that care for children and
37 young people, and services providing education and skills for learners of all ages”. [https://](https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/ofsted)
38 www.gov.uk/government/organisations/ofsted (accessed 26 October 2017).

39 8. Beyond eḳorts at accreditation, there are also discernible signs of what might be
40 termed a “hybridization” of the curriculum. Two examples illustrate this: Ebrahim College
(<https://ebrahimcollege.org.uk/>, accessed 26 October 2017) in London and Jāmiyah Khātāmūn
Nabiyeen, commonly known as JKN Institute, established in Bradford in June 1996. Not only

programme of Islamic Studies beyond GCSE or “A” level graduate from the seminary around the age of twenty-two with a “license” (ijaza) to teach others about Islam, but without qualifications that have currency in the world of higher education or wider society. Furthermore, there is a recognition within the Islamic seminary context that the classical syllabus is an “imperfect fit with the realities of modern British society” (Tim Winter/Abdal Hakim Murad, Cambridge Muslim College, in the Foreword to Scott-Baumann and Cheruvallil-Contractor 2015). Since the mid-2000s there have been efforts from both within and outside the darul uloom sector to find ways of “validating” the dars-e-nizami, so that graduates gain both their “ijaza”, but also a BA in Islamic Studies that can be awarded via a British university (Geaves 2015). At my own university in Cardiff, we have been approached by no less than three Deobandi seminaries in the last ten years, to explore the possibilities for validation of their classical Islamic Studies curriculum. These approaches have been positively welcomed, not least because they signal—at least in some quarters—a recognition of my original positive intent in the early to mid-2000s when “Closed Worlds” was written, and perhaps a sense that by now “all is forgiven”. But as Geaves notes, the effort to bridge the gap between confessional and non-confessional study of Islam is a complex project, though there has been significant progress in some institutions in recent years. These include the award of 240 “credits” (short of a full BA) from Middlesex University for a programme running at a seminary in the north of England, for example. There are other Islamic colleges in the UK that have gained validation for their BA courses in Islamic Studies, though these depart from the traditional dars-e-nizami curriculum in a number of respects and the institutions themselves are not Deobandi.⁹ The significant point about these developments, however, is the realization within the seminary sector of the value of academic partnership with universities. This has created new sets of relationships “in the field” which provide greater scope for discussion of reciprocal benefits (Harrison et al. 2001) via mutual engagement. The outcome of one such approach enabled my first visit to a Deobandi seminary in the UK in 2014; two members of their staff came to visit us in Cardiff, and we enjoyed a fruitful day exchanging information and ideas about our respective fields of work. Having hosted this meeting in Cardiff, there

have these institutions transitioned quite considerably to English as a primary medium of instruction and begun to develop a sophisticated online presence, they have diversified their curricula to include modules and subjects usually taught in “Western” secular universities. I am grateful to Dr Riyaz Timol for this observation (26 October 2017).

9. Examples of these include the BA in Islamic Studies awarded by the Open University for students at Cambridge Muslim College, while Newman University in Birmingham has degree-awarding powers for students studying at Markfield Institute of Higher Education Leicester.

1 was a recognition that progressing the conversation would involve a return visit
2 to their institution, and thus the beginning of “open doors”.

3 Completing this reflection about the educational drivers of change, we might
4 add one more. Compared to the early 2000s, the potential merits of social science
5 research are now likely to have broader appreciation in Muslim organizations.
6 In 2001, a voluntary question was asked about religious identity in the Census
7 for the first time since 1851, and largely due to the lobbying of British Muslims
8 (Field 2014; Sherif 2011). The question was asked again in the 2011 Census, and is
9 likely to remain in 2021 on account of the high response rate, and the utility of
10 the question in relation to the shaping of social policy. The data has been used
11 extensively by British Muslim institutions such as the Muslim Council of Britain
12 (Ali 2015), while the Birmingham-based charity “Islamic Relief” draws upon Cen-
13 sus data in order to produce evidence-based campaigns in the UK.¹⁰ It is likely
14 that social science is perhaps not the anathema it once was, and that high quality,
15 peer-reviewed qualitative research undertaken by responsible and well-trained
16 researchers is potentially regarded as a useful resource in the effort to counter
17 negative stereotypes about Muslim communities or organizations in Britain.¹¹

19 Writing, and Being “Written about”

20 The terrorist attack in London in 2005 was a significant catalyst for increased
21 scrutiny of British Muslim organizations, including the Islamic seminary sector. In
22 a speech to the House of Commons in the autumn of 2007, the then Prime Min-
23 ister, Gordon Brown, stated

25 Our consultations with Muslim communities emphasise the importance of the
26 training of imams. The Secretary of State for Communities and Local Govern-
27 ment will be announcing an independent review to examine, with the commu-
28 nities, how to build the capacity of Islamic seminaries, learning from other faith
communities as well as from experience overseas.¹²

29 The result of this announcement was the commissioning of the “Independent
30 Review of Muslim Faith Leader Training”, the results of which were published on
31

32 10. See video of Zia Salik, Islamic Relief UK, speaking at Cardiff University in February
33 2015: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KBizOL8JYS0>.

34 11. An example of this might include the doctoral research carried out by Riyaz Timol as
35 part of the Jameel Scholarship Programme at Cardiff University. His work on the Tab-
36 lighi Jamaat (TJ) in Britain has been met with favourable approval in TJ circles for its bal-
37 anced insights in relation to generational shifts within the movement. News of his seminar
38 presentation “went viral” after it was uploaded to YouTube, and has now been viewed over
4,000 times. See <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wBxeD8p0jpE>.

39 12.14 November 2007, [https://publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200708/cmhansrd/](https://publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200708/cmhansrd/cm071114/debtext/71114-0004.htm)
40 [cm071114/debtext/71114-0004.htm](https://publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200708/cmhansrd/cm071114/debtext/71114-0004.htm), accessed 17 October 2017.

6 October 2010 (Mukadam and Scott-Baumann 2010).¹³ Given that a new Conservative government was in place by then, the findings of the report and the recommendations arising from it did not have the impetus they might have had if the Labour Party had remained in power. However, the work involved in the production of the review enabled considerable access to a wide range of Islamic seminaries and colleges in Britain, including some from the Deobandi tradition. Though the underpinning research was far from the kind of ethnographic work that I have increasingly come to favour, it nevertheless generated an awareness in some corners of the darul uloom sector that dismissal of external scrutiny was unlikely to be a successful or sustainable strategy. Unlike expensive or otherwise inaccessible subscription-based academic publications, the report arising from the Muslim Faith Leader's Review was (and thus far remains) free to download and will have signalled to the darul uloom sector that being "written about" confers little agency in relation to their public representation.

At the time of writing my "Closed Worlds" article the number of accounts of darul uloom life recounted by former students, usually taking the form of reflective memoirs, could be counted on the fingers of one hand (Kane 1972). Since 2005, several "insider" narratives have been published (Moosa 2015; Nadwi 2007). Although these derive from an Indian context, they nonetheless offer new perspectives on an Islamic seminary tradition that has been transplanted into the UK. More recently, a darul uloom graduate from the UK has written a Master's thesis that includes research with Deobandi seminaries (Mahmood 2012), while a Jameel Scholar at Cardiff University studying on our MA programme has likewise conducted qualitative research within a darul uloom.

These developments signal a new climate of research and writing about darul uloom that dovetails with the emergence of a new critical mass of British-born social scientists whose religious upbringing—as Muslims—is an important dimension of their identity. Elsewhere, I have reflected upon the field of "British Muslim Studies" and the increasing incorporation in professional associations of new graduate scholars, women, committed Muslims, and those from a range of ethnic backgrounds (and often, a combination of these characteristics) (Gilliat-Ray 2015). Some of these promising new academics are cognizant that, as the saying goes, "if you are not at the table, you are on the menu",¹⁴ and that there may be some value to engaging in conversations, collaborations, and independent

13. For the full report, see <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/muslim-faith-leaders-training-and-development-now-and-in-the-future> (accessed 17 October 2017).

14. See https://www.huffingtonpost.com/bryan-dooley/observations-from-below-if-youre-not-at-the-table-youre-on-the-menu_b_9159732.html (accessed 26 October 2017).

research of their own from which they can shape outcomes and perceptions. In this way, British Muslim scholars who engage in social scientific research about darul uloom become pro-active agents in shaping representations that have hitherto been produced and directed by others. In many ways, they have “epistemic advantage” (McGuire 2002: 208, citing Narayan 1989), which derives from their position as ethnic/religious minorities that have been subject to marginalization and misrepresentation. They have learnt “their own culture” but have also had to learn the culture of the dominant group—as a survival skill—thus affording a particular capacity for new interpretative insight. While the fruits of their labours will be as partial and socially-constructed as any other ethnographic account, their contributions are critical for future understanding of an institution that is central to many British Muslim communities. Melissa Wilcox uses the metaphor of parallax in her teaching of Women’s Studies, and her metaphorical device can be readily transferred to the field of British Muslim studies:

I suggest to my students that just as humans need two overlapping fields of vision in order for our visual depth perception to function properly, so we need the experiences and theories of a variety of women and men for the sake of our analytical depth perception (Wilcox 2002: 51).

British Muslim social scientists are now “at the table” in a way that reflects the intellectual, educational, and professional aspirations of a new generation, and they bring vital new perceptions.

Researcher Biography

In the closing paragraphs of my “Closed Worlds” article, I reflected:

I need to find ways of collecting data about the professional formation of British-trained ‘ulama which does not rely on physical “access” to the institutions themselves—at least as a starting point (Gilliat-Ray 2005: 31).

I was partially able to fulfil this intention by pursuing a three-year piece of research in the late 2000s that aligned a long-standing track record of research about the incorporation of different faiths into publicly-funded chaplaincy (Beckford and Gilliat 1998; Gilliat-Ray 2001) with an interest in Muslims in Britain that extended back to graduate studies in the early 1990s (Gilliat-Ray 2010b). My research about the career and work of Muslim chaplains in Britain (Gilliat-Ray et al. 2013) brought me into contact with a number of graduates of Deobandi darul uloom. Although interview conversations about their religious training and formation were part of a much broader effort to map their career-trajectory and professionalization as chaplains, nonetheless, their reflections about a darul uloom education were an important by-product of the research that enhanced my understanding of the

1 institutions in which they had been trained. Perhaps more significantly, the posi-
2 tive relationships I was able to build as a consequence of the project meant that I
3 acquired a new set of relationships and contacts who could vouch for my personal
4 and professional biography, and my academically-orientated intentions. The pub-
5 lications arising from the Muslim chaplaincy project and its recognition by the
6 media demonstrate the potential value of engagement with researchers to the
7 darul uloom sector (Fergusson 2017).¹⁵ Individually, some chaplains were able to
8 enhance their reputations and profile as a result of our work, or exercise leverage
9 with their senior managers, while Islamic institutions concerned with the profes-
10 sional training of Muslim chaplains had for the first time an evidence-based text to
11 use with their students (Ali and Gilliat-Ray 2012; Gilliat-Ray 2011; Gilliat-Ray et al.
12 2013; Gilliat-Ray and Arshad 2015).

13 Returning to the starting point of this section, it might be helpful for ethnog-
14 raphers who face difficulties in relation to research access to adopt what Wolcott
15 terms a “stepwise” approach, whereby we take an incremental view of our work,
16 our careers, and our access to a research field (Wolcott 1999). In his terms, access
17 is about the trajectory of a research career, and the way in which this intersects
18 with collective activity in a wider field of social relations. “The establishment of
19 social relationships in the field should be recognized for what it is—a process—
20 rather than a single event” (Atkinson 2015: 184). Most qualitative social scien-
21 tists are playing a long-game, and “few ethnographers make adequate provision
22 for the possibility that their research of a particular topic or setting may con-
23 tinue for years, perhaps extending throughout the duration of a professional life-
24 time” (Wolcott 1999: 217). Seen in this light, my lack of access in the early 2000s
25 was a passing moment, but one that it was important to document given that it
26 now offers a benchmark against which changes and positive developments in the
27 Deobandi darul uloom sector can be measured. My decision to suspend efforts at
28 “access”, and to pursue alternative research activities was an unintentional adop-
29 tion of a “stepwise” approach that has ultimately paid off. But the way in which
30 these events have unfolded signal the fact that ethnography carried out closer to
31 home means that we cannot so easily “leave the field” (Hopkins 1993: 125). I have
32 certainly encouraged my graduate students to recognize the long-term implica-
33 tions of their work, and the fact their positionality “in the field” is likely to be in
34 a constant state of flux.

35 In light of the encouragement now given to graduates of Deobandi seminar-
36 ies to pursue mainstream further and higher education, it was perhaps inevitable
37

38
39 15. See, for example, “Muslim chaplains connect communities to public bodies”, BBC,
40 22 September 2011, at <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-wales-15008841>.

1 that the most academically talented among them might eventually wish to pursue
2 advanced research degrees at university, thus creating the conditions for collabor-
3 ative research with Islamic institutions, rather than of them. There is a mutuality
4 to this possibility, arising from introductions to one another's respective commu-
5 nities of academic and religious practice, and the scope for a more polyphonic
6 discourse about Islamic institutions. A dialogical relationship with research par-
7 ticipants at key stages of research design, conduct, analysis and especially "writ-
8 ing-up", also has the potential of enabling participant "validation" (or, equally,
9 querying) of the interpretation of data and research findings (Bloor 1999; Wol-
10 cott 1999). The prestigious "Jameel Scholarship Programme" at Cardiff University
11 has enabled several scholars associated with the Deobandi "school of thought" to
12 take up the opportunity of enrolling for advanced research degrees, and I have
13 been part of their supervisory team. In methodological terms, the contours of
14 my social relationships with potential gatekeepers in the Deobandi world have
15 changed shape; they are choosing to benefit from the academic opportunities of
16 doctoral study, and taking the initiative themselves to bridge the gap between the
17 higher education and darul uloom sectors. This has created new sets of relation-
18 ships, premised not upon my wish to secure research access, but upon the aspira-
19 tions of Muslim scholars keen to gain further qualifications and benefit from the
20 enabling role that I might play in that process. The doctoral supervision frame-
21 work has created the context for the gradual development of mutual understand-
22 ing and collegial friendship.

23 During the relationship-building process and my periodic visits to darul uloom,
24 there have been opportunities to inform their work, and to signal that I know some-
25 thing about how to behave appropriately in the context of an all-male, conserva-
26 tive, South Asian Islamic institution. I have necessarily drawn upon a repertoire
27 of experiences, derived from fieldwork in both British and overseas Muslim com-
28 munities. This has meant attending to "the control of the body and its margins,
29 the tactful management of personal space, [and] the proprieties of spoken inter-
30 action" (Atkinson 2015: 88), amongst other things. Quite simply, there is an eti-
31 quette and disposition that requires attention to the subtle norms of speech and
32 behaviour that can be powerful indicators of intent and respectfulness (Gilliat-
33 Ray 2010a). Gaining research access might thus be considered "performative", not
34 in the sense of being deceptive, but as an embodied process that requires atten-
35 tiveness to the norms that enable the mutual accomplishment of successful inter-
36 personal interaction, especially when there are significant differences in terms
37 of age, gender, ethnicity, and so on. In this way, ethnography is not just a "way of
38 seeing" (Wolcott 1999), but is also about a "way of being" that encompasses all the
39 physical and intuitive senses.

1 Doctoral supervision enables the creation of relationships that are of course
2 structured in accordance with professional academic values and procedures, but
3 they also carry the potential for some degree of informality over time, thereby
4 enabling aspects of our various “selves” to become apparent in ways that might
5 have resonance with the worldviews and priorities of our students. “Being a
6 researcher is only one aspect of the researcher’s self in the field, and although
7 one may consider being a researcher one’s most salient self, community members
8 may not agree” (Harrison et al. 2001: 329).

9 During an extended period of sick-leave in 2016, some of my Muslim doctoral
10 students, a number of whom happen to be Deobandi darul uloom graduates, came to
11 visit me at home in keeping with the meritorious practice of visiting the sick within
12 the Islamic tradition. This unusual blurring of my various professional and personal
13 spheres was welcome in many respects but it did imply that me, and my husband
14 and children, would open the door to our private world and thereby reveal aspects
15 of our “selves” that are usually reserved for our family and friends. This exemplifies
16 the fact that research “close-to-home” “may come to interweave with our everyday
17 lives [and that] families, work, even friends ... may occasionally become enmeshed
18 with our field community or its members” (Hopkins 1993: 123). This afforded my
19 students an opportunity, partially derived from their ethnographic training, to
20 observe and note aspects of my domestic life for indicators of values and behaviours
21 that are often important in South Asian communities. “Respectability” is a good
22 example. Away from the university setting, they were able to ask (very respectfully,
23 I might add) questions about my family and lifestyle that would have been “too per-
24 sonal” and inappropriate within the parameters of doctoral supervisory meetings.
25 My illness seemed to offer a fortuitous shift in my relationships with them that may
26 (or, equally, may not!) have been instrumental in securing my access to Deobandi
27 darul uloom for future research. The sociologist of religion, Meredith McGuire, expe-
28 rienced a similar situation during her fieldwork in Ireland when both she and one
29 of her children fell seriously ill with acute hepatitis. The consequence of her vul-
30 nerability and temporary dependency on others was the creation of new bonds of
31 reciprocity and obligation with local women “that I could never have created with
32 words alone” (McGuire 2002: 202). In this way, it becomes apparent that “ethno-
33 graphic research is a social art form and therefore subject to all the complexities
34 and confusions of human relationships in general” (McCarthy Brown 2002: 133).

35 Conclusion

36 The positive implications of the generational shift and more outward-facing ori-
37 entation of the Deobandi darul uloom do not always receive the publicity and rec-
38 ognition they deserve. Philip Lewis’s recent publishing of selective extracts from
39 40

1 the writings of individual Islamic scholars who continue to reflect the sometimes
2 isolationist and sectarian worldviews of their predecessors is rather unhelp-
3 ful when these examples are presented as indicative of opinions among a much
4 wider group of 'ulama (Lewis 2015a; 2015b). For example, on the basis of extracts
5 from the writing of the Deobandi scholar Mufti Saiful Islam, which are indeed
6 extremely conservative, Lewis states: "I have chosen this scholar because his
7 views are mainstream within the traditional Sunni 'school of thought' to which
8 he belongs" (Lewis 2015a: 5). The fact is that there has been no systematic study
9 of British Islamic scholars to ascertain their attitudes towards issues such as inter-
10 faith engagement, the role of women, or the participation of Muslims in pub-
11 lic life.¹⁶ The assumption of widespread hostility towards non-Muslims among
12 Deobandi scholars implied in Lewis's articles is therefore not evidence-based.
13 Although he alludes to the existence of positive examples of engagement among
14 some young British-born Muslim scholars, the implicit message conveyed in his
15 recent writings are that these are exceptional. His article in the *Journal of Angli-
16 can Studies* (access to which requires purchase or subscription) is unlikely to cross
17 the radar of many Deobandi scholars. But among those who might read and share
18 it electronically, there is a likelihood of perpetuating suspicion of academics and
19 their writing, just at a time when examples of positive outward-facing engage-
20 ment warrant encouragement and recognition.

21 Reviewing some of the likely reasons for my non-access in 2005, one of them
22 was the deeply embedded isolationist stance within the Deobandi tradition, espe-
23 cially in relation to "the British". It is now clear that Deobandi scholars born and
24 educated in the UK are increasingly likely to frame themselves within the cate-
25 gory "the British", tempering and steadily transforming historic suspicion and
26 ideas of difference that were transferred from South Asia in the decades after the
27 Second World War. Their relatively recent incorporation into academia, as both
28 producers of new knowledge and as partners in intellectual projects, signals a
29 gradual erosion of historic suspicion of the higher education sector in general, and
30 the arts, humanities and social sciences in particular. Qualitative research is per-
31 haps an "anathema-no-more". We can also point to the implications of a changed
32 socio-political climate. The coercive forces of Preventing Violent Extremism poli-
33 cies, and the requirements to demonstrate recognition of "community cohesion"
34 in public and educational institutions, drive a recognition within many Islamic
35 organizations that in this evolving policy environment, there is a public relations
36

37 16. The "Deobandi" label subsumes within itself a heterogeneous range of internally
38 diverse opinions and tendencies (as it does and did in South Asia) and it is therefore falla-
39 cious to present it as a monolithic entity. I am grateful to Dr Riyaz Timol for reminding me of
40 this point (26 October 2017).

1 game to be played. This has dovetailed with an increasing emphasis in academia
2 on “stakeholder engagement”, and the pursuit of research that can demonstrate
3 impact and relevance in wider society. Universities are thus bound up with their
4 own public relations enterprises, thereby creating a more hospitable context for
5 mutually beneficial engagement. Meanwhile, the “employability agenda” runs
6 through the machinery of both the higher education and darul uloom sectors.
7 The value of academic degrees is measured in part by the onward professional
8 employment of graduates, while many British Muslim parents are concerned that
9 the next generation have the requisite skills to flourish professionally and eco-
10 nomically in a society that many now regard as “home”.

11 The writing of this article, intended to further an understanding of British
12 Muslim community developments, as well as making a contribution to method-
13 ological debates about research “access” and fieldwork relations, has been a pro-
14 fessional and personal obligation. It is professional, in so far as it documents a
15 changing socio-religious landscape, and the clear evidence of a cautious but none-
16 theless more outward-facing orientation in at least some Deobandi darul uloom in
17 Britain and their willingness to facilitate independent academic qualitative
18 research. This has significance not only for researchers, but also for Muslim com-
19 munities which clearly have an interest in the training of future Islamic scholars
20 and educators. I am also persuaded by the insights and understanding that can
21 flow from the act of writing. As Laurel Richardson notes:

22 I consider writing as a method of inquiry, a way of finding out about yourself
23 and your topic. Although we usually think about writing as mode of “telling”
24 about the social world, writing is not just a mopping-up activity at the end of a
25 research project. Writing is also a way of “knowing”—a method of discovery and
26 analysis. By writing in different ways, we discover new aspects of our topic and
27 our relationship to it ... writing provides a research practice through which we
28 can investigate how we construct the world, ourselves, and others ... (Richard-
son 2000: 923; original emphasis).

29 My “Closed Worlds” article left a “loose end”, and a sense of unfinished business
30 (Metcalf 2002: 109). It has therefore been significant for me to reflect on and write
31 about the implications and consequences of what was published in 2005, and to
32 consider afresh the ethics of “writing-about” and representing others. It is fortu-
33 nate that qualitative research practice now stresses the necessity for reflexivity,
34 and attention to the role and responsibilities of researchers in constructing data
35 and framing narratives.

36 This professional appraisal flows into a more personal obligation, and that is
37 the public acknowledgement of the trust that has been shown towards me in rela-
38 tion to future research possibilities, and an awareness of the responsibilities and
39 accountability that flow from that privilege.
40

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